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ABSTRACT

A study examined the relationships between leadership conversation and its impact upon organizational members' levels of organizational identification and behavior. It was hypothesized (1) that effective leader conversation would be associated with higher levels of role, means, goal and overall organizational identification, and (2) that conversations by leaders perceived as effective rather than ineffective would be viewed as more intrinsically and extrinsically motivating. Subjects, 66 employees from two large midwestern hospitals, were selected by using a proportionate stratified sampling technique and were then given a highly structured interview. Subjects were asked to identify two individuals considered leaders, one of whom provided effective leadership and one of whom did not. After identifying a variety of situations where motivation was the goal, the subjects selected and reconstructed a representative conversation with each leader. The subjects were then asked to complete three questionnaires based on the two constructed conversations. Results indicated that the degree to which an employee viewed the leader conversation as meaningful was positively associated with identification and motivation. Results also indicated that means and goals identification were better predictors of organizational identification than role identification. Employees perceived a strong relationship between their desire to participate in conversation (intrinsic motivation) to achieve a goal, and the degree to which the conversation compelled them (extrinsic motivation) to accomplish a desirable goal. (Tables of data are included, and 43 references are attached.) (NKA)

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Organizational Identification and Social Motivation:

A Field Descriptive Study in Two Organizations

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Abstract

Organizational Identification and Social Motivation:

A Field Descriptive Study in Two Organizations

The formative power of everyday talk in constructing identification between organizational values and company members has been neglected. This field descriptive study examined the relationships between leadership conversation and its impact upon organizational members' levels of organizational identification and motivation. It was found that the degree to which an employee viewed the leader conversation as meaningful was positively associated with identification and motivation. The study also revealed the means and goals identification are better predictors of organizational identification than role identification.

Employee identification with the organization's values, attitudes, and goals is important when accounting for human motivation and performance. As corporations continue to grow and become more complex, employee identification is not only desirable but necessary for predictable organizational functioning (Cheney, 1983b, p. 157). Mowday, Porter, & Steers (1982) echo this observation by stating that organizations must promote spontaneous and innovative employee behavior that not only accomplishes organizational objectives but goes beyond routine prescribed behaviors. By developing a sense of psychological attachment or identification with the organization, it's members will "tend to internalize the organization's goals and thus voluntarily engage in discretionary behavior of this type" (Mowday et al., 1982, p. 4).

An important vehicle for promoting employee identification to the organization is the employee's on-the-job work experience. While a variety of antecedents may stimulate identification (See Mowday et al., 1982 for a complete review), only work experiences provide individuals with normative information concerning the rites, rituals, and social practices operating within an organization. In fact, Steers (1977) views work experiences as "a major socializing force and as such represent an important influence on the extent to which psychological attachments are formed with the organization" (p. 48). One area of work experiences that is receiving increasing attention by identification researchers is leadership (Brief, Alda, & Wallden, 1976; Morris & Sherman, 1981; Bateman et al., 1984).

While a variety of studies have examined how leadership behaviors relate to identification, few have analyzed how the everyday talk by leaders influences employee identification. Considering managers spend a disproportionate amount of time in conversations (Mintzberg, 1973; Burns,

1954), this would seem to be an important topic for study. First, this essay explores some of the key limitations in the relationships among leadership, identification, and motivation.[1] Second, it explains a conceptual framework and methodology that may address these limitations. Third, results from data gathered in a field study are presented and its implications for further research on leader communication and identification are discussed.

Leadership and Identification

Researchers have typically focused upon the relationship between certain types of leadership behaviors and organizational identification. One line of research has concentrated upon the association of leadership and supervisory styles with identification. For example, research has documented that leader initiating structure is positively related to identification (Brief et al., 1976; Morris & Sherman, 1981). Results relating leader consideration to commitment have been mixed. Additionally, Steers (1977) found that high levels of employee identification are associated with supervisory styles that are not overly tight or close. A second research avenue has stemmed from Podsakoff's discovery that leader reward and punishment behaviors are powerful predictors of job satisfaction and performance (Podsakoff, Todor, & Skov, 1984; Sims, 1980). Following this research, Bateman et al. (1984) found that leader punitive behavior has a negative causal impact upon commitment.

Though promising, this line of research has two limitations. First, while studies have demonstrated that the amount of interaction employees have with other organizational members increases their identification (Cheney, 1983a; Mowday et al., 1982), the contribution of everyday talk by leaders to identification is neglected. For example, studies linking leader style (Morris & Sherman, 1981) or punishment behavior (Bateman et al., 1984) to identification have ignored the systemic nature of leader-follower

conversation. That research overlooks the collaborative process that leaders and followers engage in when conversing and limits the scope of analysis to correlating typically used leadership strategies or behaviors to organizational identification measures.

If researchers are to examine leader conversation, they should be able to distinguish between types of conversations promoting or diminishing employee identification. One criterion that differentiates leader conversation is effectiveness. Pondy (1978) observes that leadership effectiveness has traditionally been indexed by some type of objective productivity standard or level of employee compliance to direction. Such measures arise from definitions which emphasize the primary functions of leadership as being goal-setting, providing guidance, motivation, and structuring relations with employees (Bass, 1985). Yet, leadership is more than simply giving directions, rewards, or punishments. It also provides "explanations, rationalizations, and legitimation for the activities undertaken in the organization" (Pfeffer, 1981, p. 4). This second function of leadership suggests an alternative standard for assessing leader effectiveness. Leader conversations which legitimize and explain organizational activities and goals serve to increase the meaningfulness of such events for the employee. In addition to explaining the salience of a particular task, those conversations implicitly and/or explicitly highlight the personal relevance and importance of an activity for the employee. When employees find the conversation to be more meaningful, they will be more likely to identify with the organization because the bond that exists between personal and organizational values, beliefs, and attitudes is strengthened. Effective leader talk can, therefore, be differentiated by the degree to which employees view it as being meaningful to themselves.

The treatment of identification as a singular global construct comprises a second limitation to the leadership-identification linkage research. For example, Morris and Sherman (1981) defined identification solely in reference to the organization using Mowday et al's (1979) Organizational Commitment Questionnaire. Such research neglects the possibility of multiple identifications existing within the work environment and the leader-follower dyad, both of which may influence the overall level of organizational identification. Wiener and Vardi (1980) elaborate:

> Past research has investigated outcome variables in relation to only one type of commitment at a time. An individual in a work setting, however, experiences simultaneously varying degrees of commitment toward several aspects of working life, such as the employing organization, the job or task, and personal career. Work outcomes, therefore, may be better understood as a function of all commitments combined, rather than as a function of one commitment type of another separately" (p. 82).

This also indicates, perhaps, that global identifications may be a function of lower-level identifications.

Within leader-follower conversation, several targets for lower-level identifications may emerge which can be linked to the employee's overall organizational identification. Take for example, an instance when leaders attempt to motivate their employees using conversation. In it three component parts of that motivation attempt are readily identified. First, an agent, in this case a leader, performs a social motivation attempt. Second, the leader implicitly or explicitly specifies (a) the means which are to be performed and (b) what goals are to be achieved. Each of these three component parts, in turn, can then become a target for identification with the organization during a social motivation attempt.

Role identification, similar to French and Raven's (1968) notion of referent power, is the degree to which an employee perceives a leader as having the right to enact a leadership role given organizational norms and

practices. Means identification is the degree to which an employee views the means suggested by the leader to achieve the goal as appropriate given organizational standards. Finally, goal identification is the degree to which the employee finds the goals proposed during the conversation as congruent with the organization's objectives. While those types of lower-level identifications are easily discerned, their contributions to organizational identification has yet to be explored.

It is likely that everyday, effective talk by leaders will positively affect an employee's overall organizational identification. Furthermore, effective talk should facilitate higher levels of role, means, and goal identification as leaders are able to legitimize their own role, the proposed means, and goals during the conversation.

In addition to the influence created by conversational leadership effectiveness, the form and structure of the organization may contribute to variations in the relationship between lower-level identifications and overall organizational identification. For example, in organizations which emphasize autocratic practices and strictly defined superior-subordinate relationships, role identification may play a more important part in the success of a social motivation attempt than either goal or means identification. This line of reasoning generates one research hypothesis and one research question:

H_1 Effective leader conversation will be associated with higher levels of: (a) role identification, (b) means identification, (c) goal identification, and (d) overall organizational identification.

Q_1 What is the relationship between role, means, and goal identification to organizational identification?

Leadership and Motivation

Typically two types of motivation have been identified in the literature. Extrinsically motivated behaviors refer to any set of behaviors motivated by the introduction of some external or environmental stimuli such

as threats or rewards. Conversely, "intrinsically motivated behaviors are those behaviors that are motivated by the underlying need for competence and self-determination" (Deci & Ryan, 1980). The former emphasizes the deterministic causes of human behavior whereas the latter offers a more goal-oriented or purposive explanation.

Leadership theories either implicitly or explicitly assume some type of positive relationship with motivation. Tyagi (1985) contends that "leadership behavior can motivate subordinates to the extent that they see that the leader behavior is instrumental in obtaining desirable rewards provided by the organization" (p. 78). This assumption has produced research that suggests: (1) participative management techniques enhance employee motivation (Likert, 1967); (2) arbitrary punitive and contingent approving behaviors are related to intrinsic and extrinsic motivation (Kohli, 1985); and (3) perceptions of upward influence by leaders are tied to extrinsic motivation (Tyagi, 1985).

Leadership research assumes intrinsic and extrinsic motivation is a function of the communicative acts performed by leaders. For example, Cusella (1980; 1984) working from Deci's (1972; 1975) Cognitive Evaluation Theory (CET) found that positive feedback to subordinates enhanced their intrinsic motivation. This finding is consistent with Deci's (1975) line of research. According to CET, persons assess the degree to which a message: (1) shifts the locus of control to the initiator, and (2) informs them of their competence in performing a task and self-determination. If individuals view the message as emphasizing the former, they will be more extrinsically motivated whereas the latter promotes intrinsic motivation. In this line of research, intrinsic motivation has been tied to the nature of the <u>task itself</u> and has been typically defined as task performance or as perceptions of the task.

What most theories of leadership and commitment fail to examine is

whether subordinates view the communicative act itself as either intrinsically or extrinsically motivating or both. That is, do people wish to participate in some conversational act in order to accomplish a desired goal such as a need for competence (intrinsically motivating) or does the conversational act itself compel persons to achieve a desired goal (extrinsically motivating). The answer to this question seemingly represents an important moderating variable in the relationship between particular leadership behaviors and motivation as indexed by actual task performance. For example, participative management techniques, in and of themselves, may be highly intrinsically motivating to subordinates because: (a) management conveys a message of respect for the judgement of the subordinates (sense of competence), and (b) the participation is structured in such a way that the subordinates benefit from the involvement. Raising the level of involvement facilitates and stimulates employee's intrinsic motivation toward accomplishing their tasks.

From a conversational perspective, individuals may guage their level of intrinsic and extrinsic motivation for a dialogue at several points in time (Cronen, Pearce, & Snavely, 1979). First, individuals may assess whether they find the conversation as either intrinsically or extrinsically motivating on a message-by-message basis. In order for individuals to produce a sequence of messages, Pearce and Cronen (1980) state that persons must engage in some type of "sense-making" process. They contend that individuals utilize a variety of social contexts to interpret an ongoing conversation and sequence their subsequent talk.[2] For example, individuals may employ their personal view of the episode, their relationship with the other person, their self-image, and the cultural pattern of the organization to interpret a conversation (Cronen, Pearce, & Harris, 1982). Interpretations or meanings, in turn, become motivating forces that permit, obligate, or prohibit the performance of

certain types of messages.

Two types of motivating forces may guide an individual's selection and performance of messages in conversation (Figure 1A). Prefigurative or extrinsic forces, as represented by thesolid lines, refer to the pre-existing

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Insert Figure 1 about here

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store of meanings people use to interpret other's messages which controls or determines their subsequent speech acts. This type of force is consistent with some theoretical orientations that describe individuals as controlled or determined by the events surrounding them (Pearce & Cronen, 1980, p. 164). When asked why they selected the type of messages they produced during a social motivation attempt, persons operating on the basis of extrinsic forces may reply, "I said that because of my relationship with the other individual." Practical forces, as represented by the dotted lines, refer to the purposive or intrinsically motivating forces guiding an individual's actions. This type of force assumes that people are purposive agents who select and perform messages in order to facilitate achieving desirable goals (Pearce & Cronen, (1980, p. 164). When asked why they performed particular types of messages during a conversation, individuals who are intrinsically motivated may respond, "I said that in order to achieve a goal."

Second, in addition to operating on a message-by-message basis, individuals may assess their level of extrinsic and intrinsic forces regarding a dialogue at a more global level (Cronen et al., 1982; Pearce & Cronen, 1980). Similar to the individual messages performed during an episode, the completed episode itself may be either intrinsically or extrinsically motivating to an individual. In some instances, the conversation alone may

prefigure or "cause" an individual's subsequent action. For others, the conversation may have been intrinsically motivating. Such conversations may be intrinsically motivating as individuals desire to participate because it increases their feeling of self-competence and aids them in achieving their goals. Those types of episodes may highlight desirable goals to individuals and subsequently prompt the performance of desired behaviors.

Most leadership theories make the assumption that particular types of leadership behaviors enhance extrinsic and intrinsic motivation. Similarly, one assumes that a leader's effective communicative acts will prompt the participant to view the conversation itself as intrinsically or extrinsically motivating. This leads to the second hypothesis.

H_2 Perceived effective versus ineffective conversations by leaders will be viewed as more intrinsically and extrinsically motivating.

Furthermore, many theorists have asserted that organizational identification is positively associated with an individual's motivation to accomplish organizational goals (Foote, 1951; Likert, 1967; Katz & Kahn, 1966; Deal & Kennedy, 1982; Peters & Waterman, 1982; Ouchi, 1981). While overall organizational identification has been related to motivation, the specific targets of identification within a motivation attempt (role, means, and goal) have not been related to either intrinsic or extrinsic motivation. It may well be that the degree to which an individual views a conversation as either intrinsically or extrinsically motivating is contingent upon the relationship (role identity) that has been established within the dyad. This generates the second research question:

Q_2 What is the relationship between specific targets of identification (role, means, goal) and the extent to which an individual views the conversations as being intrinsically or extrinsically motivating?

Method

Subjects

Subjects were drawn from two large midwestern hospitals using a proportionate stratified sampling technique with the organization's managerial levels serving as strata. In Hospital A, 34 members of a pulmonary-cardiology were selected, and in Hospital B, 32 individuals from a nursing unit were selected.

Procedures

A field descriptive method was used to reconstruct naturally occuring conversations within two hospitals. A two step procedure was employed. First, during a highly structured interview, they were asked the following question based on Bass' (1985) definition of leadership:

> I would like you to think about an individual who you work with that usually sets work goals for you or where you both decide what work goals you are to meet. This individual could be a co-worker, a supervisor, or a friend you seek out. Further, this should be an individual you feel has been very effective (ineffective) in assisting or directing you towards some goal of the work group. What is the individual's first name?

After identifying two individuals, one who was typically effective in providing direction and one who was not, they were asked as part of a reliability check to indicate whether they viewed these persons as either a formal or informal leader. All participants indicated that they perceived the individuals they selected as performing leadership roles. They then identified a variety of situations where the individual they named had tried to motivate them. After generating a number of such situations, they selected and reconstructed a representative conversation with each person. The message contents and sequences were recorded on the interview schedules. This yielded two conversations: (1) one conversation with an effective leader, and (2) one with a leader viewed as ineffective.

Second, each subject received packets containing the transcripts of the

two conversations and were asked to complete three questionnaires. (1) They completed scalar items measuring the intrinsic and extrinsic motivating forces for each of their own utterances. (2) Subjects completed a set of scales tapping their global impressions of the dialogues. (3) They answered a set of demographic questions. The return rate in Hospital A and B were 81% and 58% respectively.

Operational Definition of Message Variables

Subjects completed a series of seven-point Likert-like scalar items measuring their level of intrinsic and extrinsic motivation for each message they had uttered in the dialogue. Five items measured the perceived extrinsic motivating forces behind each message: (1) perceived link between antecedent condition and the act, (2) perceived link between the nature of the episode and the act, (3) perceived link between the nature of the relationship and the act, (4) perceived link between the selfimage and the act, and (5) perceived

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Insert Table 1 about here

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link between the cultural norms and the act. The reliability coefficient for these measures was .82 (Cronbach's alpha). Perceived intrinsic motivating forces were measured using three items: (1) perceived link between the act and consequent actions, (2) perceived link between the act and personal goals, and (3) perceived link between the act and work-related goals. The reliability coefficient was .80 (Cronbach's alpha).

One standard for measuring leader effectiveness is the need for legitimation. This variable was operationalized using two 7-point Likert-like scales with subjects completing each scale for every message uttered by the leader. The mean average was then computed across all the messages spoken by

the leader. The reliability coefficient was .65 (Cronbach's alpha).

Operationalization of Global Measures

Perceived organizational identification, role identification, means identification, goal identification, intrinsic motivation, and extrinsic motivation were all operationalized using 7-point Likert-like scales. Organizational identification was measured using a single Likert-like scale. Reliability coefficients for the remaining variables ranged from .74 to .93 (Cronbach's alpha). Two global measures of leader conversation effectiveness were included: (a) episode desirability and (b) coherence. Operationalized using 7-point Likert-like scales, reliability coefficients were .77 and .90 respectively (Cronbach's alpha).

Results

Preliminary Analysis

A reliability check was computed to see if the reconstructed conversations could be properly classifed as effective and ineffective conversations given the definition offered earlier. T-tests for related

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Insert Table 2 about here

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samples indicated that subjects in both hospitals viewed effective versus ineffective conversations with leaders as: (a) more desirable and effective, (b) more coherent, and (c) requiring less legitimation and explanation.

Identification and Leadership

The first research hypothesis suggested that effective leader conversation would be associated with higher levels of identification. In both hospitals, effective leadership conversation was viewed as: (a) contributing to organizational identification, (b) utilizing organizationally

sanctioned means, and (c) trying to achieve organizationally accepted goals. However, in Hospital A, the organizational pattern for performing leadership led followers to identify with the role of the leader regardless if the conversation was viewed as either effective or ineffective. Individuals within Hospital B more highly identified with the role the leader performed in effective versus ineffective conversations.

Leader Conversation and Motivation

Research hypothesis two states that a positive relationship between leader conversation effectiveness and motivation exists. On a global level, followers in both hospitals perceived the conversations as more intrinsically and extrinsically motivating as a result of effective versus ineffective leader conversation. At the message level, intrinsic motivating forces were similar regardless of leadership effectiveness in both hospitals. However, members of Hospital A perceived extrinsic motivating forces as stronger during ineffective leader conversation while individuals in Hospital B perceived them as similar.

Several intercorrelations between intrinsic and extrinsic motivating forces at the message and global level were found. In Hospital A, intrinsic forces in conversation were weakly associated with global extrinsic motivation ($r(48)=.30$, $p<.05$) and intrinsic motivation ($r(47)=.30$, $p<.05$). Subjects in Hospital B perceived intrinsic forces at the message level as moderately associated with global intrinsic motivation ($r(32)=.39$, $p<.05$), but not for extrinsic motivation. For both hospitals, extrinsic forces at the message level were not correlated with global level motivation. The global types of motivation were moderately interrelated. Intrinsic motivation was moderately associated with extrinsic motivation in both Hospital A ($r(47)=.66$, $p<.05$) and Hospital B ($r(32)=.55$, $p<.05$).

Lower-level Identifications, Identification, and Motivation

Research questions one and two suggest that lower-level identifications should be related to both organizational identification and motivation. The relationships between these two sets of variables were examined using canonical correlation. In this analysis, the first set of variables was composed: (a) organizational identification, (b) intrinsic motivation at a global level, and (c) extrinsic motivation at a global level. A second set of variables was comprised of the lower-level identifications present in a motivation attempt: (1) role, (2) means, and (3) goal.

One pair of canonical correlations were statistically significant for both hospitals. In Hospital A, the canonical correlation was strong (R_c = .83) with a shared variance (eigenvalue) of .69. The canonical correlation for Hospital B was slightly stronger (R_c = .89, eigenvalue = .79). If the possibility of multicollinearity exists, a more reliable interpretation of the findings is obtained if the structure matrix is analyzed (Levine, 1977). The structure matrix consists of the correlations between each individual element within a variable set and the overall canonical variate for that set. The structure matrix provides information regarding the relative importance among the variables within a given set of variables (Tabachnick & Fidell, 1985).

For both hospitals, the structure matrix analysis indicated a high degree of relationship between organizational identification and means and goals identification. In Hospital A, means identification (.96) possessed a stronger relationship with organizational identification than did goals identification (.80) while means (.82) and goals (.84) identification were roughly of the same intensity for Hospital B. However, the hospitals differed

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Insert Tables 3 and 4 about here

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in the area of motivation. Intrinsic motivation was strongly related to means and goals identification in Hospital A (.89) while extrinsic motivation was strongly related to means and goals identification in Hospital B (.89).

Discussion

This study addressed three general questions. First, it was argued that because meaningful leader conversation legitimizes organizational practices and provides desirable outcomes to employees, it would be positively associated with several types of identification and motivation. The results confirmed the hypothesis. The finding suggests that leaders must not only learn what types of leader-follower conversation are permissible within particular organizations, but how to make them meaningful for the employee. For example, Pacanowsky and Trujillo (1983) argue that cultural performances by organizational members such as management, political, and sociability rituals reveal the communication rules, goals, and rituals operating within a culture. If these cultural performances are perceived as meaningful, employees will be: (a) more likely to form strong psychological connections between the organizational goals and communication rules and their personal ones, (b) highly motivated to participate in them, and (c) energized by them to achieve organizational goals. However, while some research has examined what the contents and functions of organizational rituals are (Pacanowsky & Trujillo, 1983), little research has probed how they are made meaningful to the employee.

Second, it was argued that lower-level identifications such as role, means, and goal identifications should be related to organizational identification. For both hospitals, the canonical solution confirmed that when conversations contained organizationally appropriate means and goals,

employees were more likely to view the conversation as increasing their organizational identification. Role identification possessed a weak positive association with organizational identification. The strong presence of means identification in the solution confirms Laird and Hemphill's (1983) contention that actions are a critical target for identification in organizations. It is clear that levels of organizational identification are indeed tied to the shared images of acting together held by organizational members towards common goals.

The positive weak relationship between role and organizational identification was unexpected. Intuitively, one would assume that as employees perceive a leader's conversational performance as appropriate given the organizational culture, they would identify more with the organization. Surprising however, this is not the case. One may explain the unexpected finding in two ways. First, the concept of role identity may be closely associated with some type of social hierarchy operating within the organization. Such a social hierarchy would inherently contain superior-subordinate relationships and status differences which would classify, divide, and separate people from one another (Burke, 1954). An individual's identity of a role with an organizational culture suggests that they have a clear understanding of the organizational rules which differentiate roles from one another. As a result, increased role identification highlights the distinctions that exist among among people and decreases their sense of organizational identification.

A second reason for this finding may be traced to Burke's (1954) conception of mystery. He argues that mystery is the binding force behind social organizations and that social hierarchies typically promote mystery. An individuals' sense of mystery and magic with the social hierarchy increases

when they do not understand (a) how the hierarchy was initially created, and (b) what rules and regulations guide its operation. Similarly, if mystery surrounds what qualities and actions leaders must possess to perform their role, others within the organizational hierarchy will be respectful to their authority and view their acts as "magic." This idea is consistent with Eisenberg's (1984) observation that ambiguity may promote social cohesion. However, increased role identification may cause individuals to clearly understand the rules and rituals that guide role enactment which in turn prompts the same persons to view leadership performance as less mysterious and magical. As mystery decreases, social cohesion is replaced with social division. If both ideas can be viewed as being correct, researchers may find it necessary to reassess the types of relationships that leaders should and should not form with other organizational members.

The third and last last research area examined the intercorrelation among intrinsic and extrinsic motivating forces at both the message and global level. An interesting finding was the high intercorrelation between intrinsic and extrinsic motivation at the global level. In both organizations, employees perceived a strong relationship between their desiring to participate in conversation (intrinsic motivation), in order to achieve a goal, and the degree to which the conversation compelled them (extrinsic motivation) to accomplish a desirable goal. The intercorrelation suggests leaders will be challenged to construct conversations that may compel followers to accomplish goals, unless followers are initially willing to participate in the conversations.

The strong association between the variables suggests a research area that leadership theorists have historically paid limited attention. Little research has examined what kinds of strategies leaders employ prior to an

actual motivation attempt to increase an employee's desire to participate in the conversation. A similar problem had existed until recently in the area of conflict and power. Conrad (1983) notes that most conflict researchers have focused upon the use of power strategies during overt conflict. However, that emphasis neglects the "second face of power" (Bacharach & Baratz, 1962), how power is used prior to overt conflict to either set the discussion agenda or avoid the conflict entirely. Similarly, investigators have ignored the "second face of leadership." Leaders will find it difficult to construct conversations that motivate employees unless they have the employee receptive to it's initiation. It then becomes necessary and crucial to discover how leaders create receptivity to conversation in followers.

The present study has provided a set of promising findings, however, the strength of the claims are limited by one methodological concern. The basic data for this study were followers' reconstructions of conversations occurring between themselves and individuals they perceived as leaders. The content of the actual conversations was not utilized, therefore, subjects may remember the conversations with respect to their own implicit theories of good or bad leadership rather than remember the conversations perceptually unfiltered. This occurence could potentially cause the contents of the reconstructed conversations to be somewhat inaccurate and differ from the original conversations.

While there are certain limitations to this type of methodology, it has been used successfully in studies examining interpersonal (Cronen et al., 1979) and family (Harris, 1980) communication. Furthermore, the basic premise of the approach is that individuals base their subsequent actions upon the way they perceived the social motivation attempt. While accurate recall of the contents of conversation may be temporally limited, the structure of

attributions an individual may employ to interpret the conversation and structure their acts within it may be temporally durative (Pearce & Cronen, 1980, p. 144). People may not recall accurately what was said but are more likely to remember what it meant to them at that time. As a result, individual's orientations to past, present, or future conversations will more likely be influenced by their own cognitive structuring of the event than by the actual contents of the conversation.

The present findings are offered to provide a future research agenda for leadership conversation, motivation, and identification. The research methodology examined conversation at a global level. It would be desirable to examine the conversational form or internal structuring of the conversations. Perhaps, particular forms of conversation are more meaningful than others. For example, would conversations that assume a narrative form be better equipped to legitimize organizational practices? The discovery that role identification is negatively associated with organizational identification prompts two questions. If role identification decreases an individual's identification with the organization, what type of relationship should leaders and followers create? How do leaders maintain the mystery surrounding their organizational role? Finally, in regard to motivation, what strategies do leaders use to create a desire in their subordinates to participate in conversations? These types of questions will be subject to future research investigations.

Notes

[1]The concept of organizational identification has been variously defined. Recently, Morrow (1983) has contended that the concepts of organizational identification and commitment are partially redundant. In fact, Mowday et al. (197) define one dimension of organizational commitment as the degree to which employees identify with the organization's values and goals as their own. Given the overlap between these two concepts, the terms organizational commitment and identification will be used interchangeably.

[2]The theoretical orientation employed in this study is Pearce and Cronen's (1980) theory of the Coordinated Management of Meaning. Cronen, Pearce, and Harris (1982) provide an excellent synopsis of the general assumptions of the theory.

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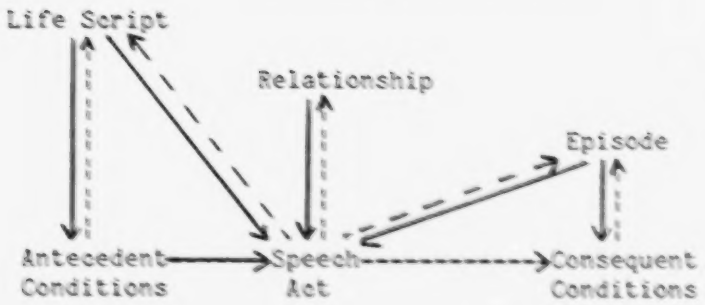
Figure 1

Conversational Motivating Forces

and Message Performance



Where: ---------- represents prefigurative (extrinsic) forces

---------- represents practical (intrinsic) forces

Table 1

Reliability Coefficients for Scalar Items

Prefigurative Motivating Forces	
The preceding message seemed to require me to respond with this type of message.	
The situation seemed to require me to say this type of message.	
The type of relationship we have requires me to say this type of message.	
Saying this kind of message closely reflected who I am and what a person like me must do.	
A person like me in this organization would feel it is very important that I say this type of message.	.82
Practical Motivating Forces	
I said this type of message in order to bring about a particular response.	
I said this kind of message in order to achieve a desirable work-related goal.	
I said this type of message in order to bring about a personal goal.	.80
Perceived Legitimation	
(Leader) definitely needs to explain to me why s/he said this kind of message.	
I view this kind of message as a reason for following the (leader's) given directive.	.65
Organizational Identification	
This kind of conversation definitely makes me feel like I belong in this organization.	
Role identification	
In our organization, it is highly appropriate for people like the other person in this conversation to perform the role of a leader in similar kinds of situations.	

In our organization, it is very acceptable for individuals like the other person in the conversation to act like a leader in similar types of situations.	.87

Means Identification

The means we used to meet our goals were very similar to the kinds of activities our organization would want us to use.	
The ways we used to meet our goals were very similar to the kinds of activities our organization would want us to use.	.89

Goal Identification

The goals the other person and I were trying to achieve by having this conversation were very similar to the goals of the organization.	
The goals the other person and I were trying to achieve by having this conversation were very different from the goals of the organization.	.93

Global Intrinsic Motivation

I definitely wanted to have this conversation because it helps me bring about an extremely desirable work-related goal.	
I greatly wanted to have this conversation because it helps me achieve a very desirable personal goal.	.86

Global Extrinsic Motivation

How the other person talked to me during this conversation greatly motivated me to achieve some work-related goal.	
The other person talked to me during this conversation in a way that greatly motivated me to achieve some personal goal.	.74

Episode Desirability

This kind of conversation was extremely desirable.	
This conversation was very ineffective in moving us towards some work-related goals.	
This conversation was very ineffective in moving us toward some work-related goals.	.77

Coherence

The other person spoke so badly, I had absolutely no idea what s/he wanted me to do.

The other person spoke so well, I absolutely understood what s/he wanted me to do. .90

Table 2

T-test for Related Samples

	Effective Conversation M	Ineffective Conversation M	t	d	p
Hospital A					
Reliability Checks					
Episode Desirability	15.28	7.95	5.79	20	0.00
Coherence	11.86	7.95	4.77	20	0.00
Legitimation	6.66	11.10	4.15	25	0.00
Types of Identification					
Organizational	4.47	2.74	4.03	22	0.00
Role	10.63	9.73	1.01	21	0.32
Means	10.85	6.20	5.30	19	0.00
Goal	10.15	7.70	2.46	19	0.02
Types of Motivation					
Intrinsic (Global)	9.71	4.67	5.52	20	0.00
Extrinsic (Global)	10.86	5.86	5.81	21	0.00
Intrinsic (Message)	14.97	16.23	0.81	25	0.42
Extrinsic (Message)	25.28	29.44	2.03	25	0.05
Hospital B					
Reliability Checks					
Episode Desirability	15.88	9.06	5.74	15	0.00
Coherence	12.56	7.88	5.72	15	0.00
Legitimation	6.12	9.39	4.01	15	0.00
Types of Identification					
Organizational	5.94	3.19	7.91	15	0.00
Role	12.00	9.88	2.57	15	0.02
Means	11.25	6.62	5.07	15	0.00
Goal	11.44	7.88	4.36	15	0.00
Types of Motivation					
Intrinsic (Global)	9.56	6.50	3.02	15	0.00
Extrinsic (Global)	11.19	5.50	5.45	15	0.00
Intrinsic (Message)	15.98	15.01	1.12	15	0.28
Extrinsic (Message)	27.54	26.53	0.96	15	0.35

Table 3

Canonical Solution for Hospital A

Set 1: Organizational Identification and Motivations	Organizational Identification	.93
	Intrinsic Motivation	.89
	Extrinsic Motivation	.70
Set 2: Specific Types of Identifications	Role Identification	.20
	Means Identification	.96
	Goal Identification	.80

eigenvalue=.69

Table 4

Canonical Solution for Hospital B

Set 1: Organizational Identification and Motivations	Organizational Identification	.98
	Intrinsic Motivation	.50
	Extrinsic Motivation	.89
Set 2: Specific Types of Identifications	Role Identification	.30
	Means Identification	.82
	Goal Identification	.84

eigenvalue=.79